

Decoding the Amplitude-Modulated Part the DCF77 Longwave Time Signal by using the Goertzel Algorithm

1st Leander Hackmann

*Master Embedded Systems Engineering
FH Dortmund*

Dortmund, Germany

Mat.-Nr.: 7217912, leander.hackmann001@stud.fh-dortmund.de

Abstract—The DCF77, a long wave time signal transmitter that is located near Frankfurt am Main in Germany, is the primary source of time information for radio-controlled clocks in Europe. Its signal consists of a phase and an amplitude-modulated part, both containing the time information. Devices that use the signal usually consist of an amplitude modulation long wave receiver, often realized by using a dedicated integrated circuit, and an application processor. In this paper, an alternative approach for the demodulation of the amplitude-modulated part of the signal, without the need for specialized analog circuitry and only a minimal amount of simple hardware components, is presented. This is done by utilizing direct-sampling software-defined radio techniques together with leveraging the efficiency of the Goertzel algorithm. As a result, the presented approach removes the need for most of the usually employed analog circuitry, leaving only a front-end amplifier, and therefore effectively proposes a new type of design where the receiver is implemented inside the application processor. The employed lightweight algorithms keep it realizable on a system with limited resources, which is shown in an example implementation on a Arm Cortex-M3 microcontroller.

Index Terms—DCF77, Goertzel, Digital Signal Processing, Time Signal, Software Defined Radio

I. INTRODUCTION

Radio controlled clocks are very popular because they don't require periodical re-adjustment in comparison to common mechanical or quartz-powered clocks. Instead, the information about the current time is obtained from a RF-signal that is transmitted by an official authority that ensures its availability and correctness. The probably most important time signal in Europe is transmitted by the station DCF77 from Mainflingen, a city in Germany that is close to Frankfurt am Main. The station is operated by a private company that is commissioned by the Physikalisch-Technische Bundesanstalt (PTB) which also supplies the current time information, generated by two caesium clocks and two caesium fountains. Its operating frequency lies in the long wave area at 77.5 kHz and the time signal uses simple modulation techniques (amplitude and phase-modulation) and transmits with 100 kW Effective Isotropic Radiated Power (EIRP) to enable the reception of the signal in relatively close distances (up to 2000 km) with simple technical equipment [2].

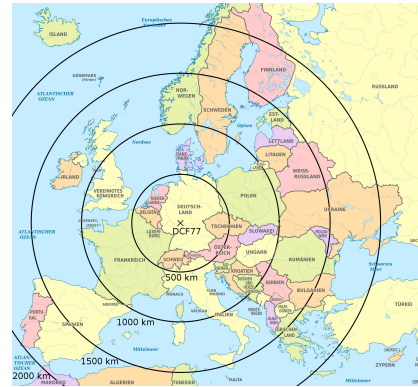


Fig. 1. Coverage of the DCF77 signal. Adapted from [1]

End-user devices usually make use of the amplitude-modulated part of the signal by using an amplitude modulation receiver, often a by employing specialized integrated circuit, together with a rather big ferrite-rod antenna to obtain the time signal. This time signal then needs further hardware, often in form of a microcontroller used as the application processor, to decode and retrieve the actual time information. With the increasing availability of computation power and Digital Signal Processing (DSP) capabilities inside cheap mixed-signal microcontrollers, which are already used to process the time information, the idea to replace the analog receiver portion with a Software Defined Radio (SDR) is more or less obvious. Moving the receiver into the application processor would allow for a simpler hardware design by shrinking down the complexity and the parts count of the external analog circuitry. In fact, only a tuned antenna with a basic pre-amplifier is needed.

In this paper, a straightforward principle for designing a lightweight receiver for the DCF77, based on SDR-techniques, is presented. After taking a look at the structure of the DCF77 signal, the theoretical operation principle of the receiver is explained and shown in a MATLAB simulation. To further underline the simplicity and the possibility to implement the principle on a system with limited resources, a demonstration

on a Arm Cortex-M3 microcontroller is shown.

II. THE DCF77 SIGNAL

The DCF77 station operates in the long wave area at a frequency of 77.5 kHz. Its operation started with transmitting a frequency standard in 1959. In 1973, the transmission of the current time information was added to the signal by using amplitude modulation. To allow a reception under more challenging conditions and with a higher resolution and accuracy, the same time information is also added to the signal since 1983 by using phase-modulation [3]. The two different parts of the signal that result out of the parallel amplitude and the phase-modulation can be used for different use-cases that are separated by the requirements regarding the resolution, accuracy, and the reliability of the obtained time information. Whereas the amplitude-modulated part is mainly used for general-purpose time application with low resolution requirements, the phase-modulated part is usually used for specialized applications that require a higher resolution, accuracy, and reliability. Although being considered as low in comparison to what is achievable by analyzing the phase-modulated part, the usually observed accuracy uncertainty when using the amplitude-modulated part it is still well below 1 s, being 100 ms [2]. When using the phase-modulated part, a standard deviation of $\pm 2 \mu\text{s}$ to $\pm 22 \mu\text{s}$ from the atomic clock to the receiving device can be observed [4].

As the amplitude-modulated part allows simplistic receiver designs through its straightforward modulation scheme, it is used in the principle presented in this paper and therefore a focus is put on explaining this part of the DCF77 signal. The following explanations in this paper therefore refer explicitly to the amplitude-modulated part. The time information, represented as a series of binary symbols, is modulated onto the carrier with a frequency of 77.5 kHz by using Amplitude-Shift Keying (ASK). Every symbol has the duration of exactly 1 s, with a part that is either 100 ms or 200 ms long where it has a value to zero. This the duration of this "gap" is used to encode respectively a 0 or a 1 and effectively switches the strength of the carrier between 15 % and 100 % [5].

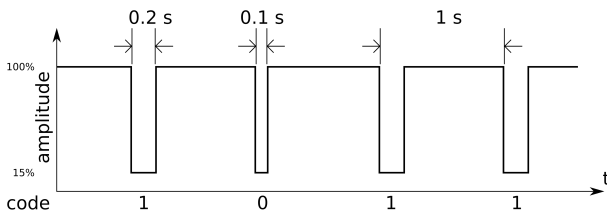


Fig. 2. Symbol encoding of the DCF77 signal. From [1]

To allow the detection of a new minute, the gap is left out between the last (59) second of the ongoing and the first (0) second of the next minute. By using this scheme, a dataframe consisting out 59 Bit, starting at second one, can be transmitted every minute. Bit 0 to 19 are used to send encrypted weather data, to notify the PTB in case of errors in the transmitter, to announce an upcoming switch to or from

Daylight Saving Time (DST), to show if DST is currently enabled or not, and to announce an upcoming leap second [5]. As the decryption of the weather data requires a specialized third-party integrated circuit and the notification bit is only important for the PTB, these parts of the frame are discarded by most applications. The leftover Bits 20 to 58 are used to represent the current time and date in Binary Coded Decimal (BCD) format, including parity bits for recognizing errors.

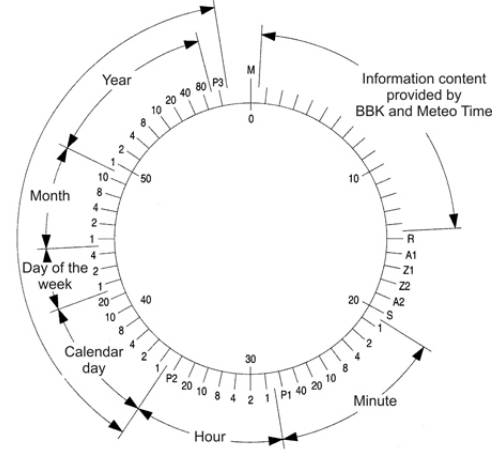


Fig. 3. Data frame encoding of the DCF77 signal. From [5]

This means that a receiver needs to run at least for 39 s after powerup to receive one whole block containing the current time information. In reality, this period is usually longer because the receiver needs to adapt to the current receiving conditions. These conditions underly a lot of influences, including temporary fading, electromagnetic noise from the close environment or varying signal strengths during different times of the day.

III. PRINCIPLE OF THE RECEIVER

As the seen in the description of the DCF77 signal, retrieving back the binary time signal from the amplitude-modulated part is more or less trivial. Conventional applications execute this task by using analog receiving circuits, usually by using a simple amplitude modulation receiver together with a tuned ferrite-rod antenna, acting as a Bandpass Filter (BPF), to filter out the irrelevant part of the spectrum. Moving the receiver into the digital domain allows for more advanced techniques to retrieve this binary time signal, rather than demodulating the signal with a diode detector inside the amplitude modulation receiver. Because the information is contained only in the amplitude of the signal, and therefore inside the signal strength at the receiver, it can also be obtained by doing a continuous analysis of the spectrum at the carrier's frequency of 77.5 kHz. This task will be carried out by using the Goertzel algorithm, which is presented later. The structure of the whole receiver then simplifies to only two external hardware parts (besides the application processor) and four internal software parts.

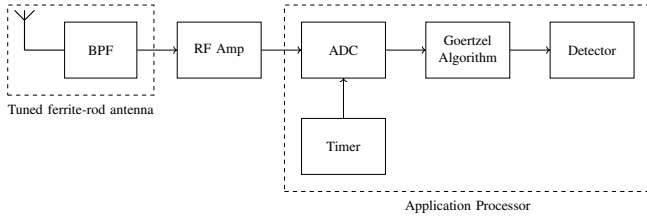


Fig. 4. Block diagram of the receiver

The tuned ferrite-rod antenna is kept to filter out the irrelevant spectral components, leaving only the DCF77's component at 77.5 kHz. This signal is then amplified by a RF amplifier and sampled at a certain sampling rate f_s using the Analog to Digital Converter (ADC) of the application processor. A timer producing a frequency equal to f_s is used to trigger the sampling. The samples are passed to the Goertzel algorithm to analyze the amplitude of the DCF77 signal. The result of the analysis is then passed to a detector to reconstruct the binary time signal.

Before discussing the simulation of the whole receiver, the internal parts executing the sampling, the spectral analysis and the detection are explained in more detail, as they use some special techniques that should be introduced and explained beforehand.

A. Bandpass sampling the DCF77 signal

Lowpass sampling is probably the most commonly used sampling technique. Stated by the Nyquist criterion, it requires the sampling rate f_s to be at greater or equal to twice of the frequency of the highest frequency f_h component in the signal to be sampled:

$$f_s \geq 2 \cdot f_h \quad (1)$$

Only when this condition is satisfied, the original signal can be reconstructed from the samples and it must be ensured that the signal contains no spectral elements that might violate the condition [6]. This is usually done by filtering the signal through a lowpass before sampling.

Besides lowpass sampling, a signal can also be bandpass sampled if it has a limited bandwidth B , defined by the frequency of the lowest spectral component f_l and the highest spectral component f_h :

$$B = f_h - f_l \quad (2)$$

The center frequency f_c is then located in the middle between f_l and f_h :

$$f_c = \frac{f_l + f_h}{2} = f_l + \frac{B}{2} \quad (3)$$

Signals that fulfill these requirements can also be sampled with a lower f_s and still be reconstructed, if special care is taken when selecting the actual value of f_s . The ranges of possible values for f_s are defined by the conditions

$$\frac{2 \cdot f_c - B}{m} \geq f_s \geq \frac{2 \cdot f_c + B}{m+1} \quad (4)$$

and

$$f_s \geq 2 \cdot B \quad (5)$$

with m being an arbitrary, positive integer [6]. During this sampling process, the signal is also shifted in frequency. This can be imagined by a sum of convolutions of the initial spectrum with dirac delta functions, located at positive and negative integer multiples of f_s [7].

As the DCF77's signal fulfills the stated requirements after it is received by the tuned ferrite-rod antenna and therefore bandpass filtered, it qualifies for being bandpass sampled. Its center frequency f_c lies at 77.5 kHz with a theoretical maximum bandwidth B of 2.4 kHz [2]. The effective bandwidth is much smaller in reality but 2.4 kHz will be used for finding a proper sampling frequency to provide enough safety margin. With (4), a table containing possible ranges for f_s can be created.

TABLE I
POSSIBLE RANGES FOR f_s WITH $f_c = 77.5$ kHz AND $B = 2.4$ kHz

m	Lower boundary of f_s $\left\lceil \frac{2 \cdot f_c + B}{m+1} \right\rceil$	Upper boundary of f_s $\left\lfloor \frac{2 \cdot f_c - B}{m} \right\rfloor$
1	78 700 Hz	152 600 Hz
3	52 467 Hz	76 300 Hz
4	39 350 Hz	50 866 Hz
5	31 480 Hz	38 150 Hz
6	26 234 Hz	30 520 Hz
7	22 486 Hz	25 433 Hz
8	19 675 Hz	21 800 Hz
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
31	4919 Hz	4922 Hz
32	4770 Hz	4768 Hz
33	4630 Hz	4624 Hz

It is visible that with increasing values for m , the value of f_s and also the distance between the lower and the upper boundaries are decreasing. At $m = 32$, the condition of (5) is violated and at $m = 32$ the condition of (4), making $m = 31$ the last valid range. Choosing a sampling rate can now be done from this table while. A lower sampling rate effectively shrinks the requirements regarding computational power, memory size and the ADC's speed, but simultaneously decreases the distance between the lower and the upper boundary of the sampling rate. This then leads to higher requirements regarding the correctness of the sampling rate. A choice providing a good tradeoff between these effects is $m = 7$ with $f_s = 24$ kHz, because it offers a distance of 2647 Hz the upper and lower boundary with the sampling frequency lying almost in the middle [8]. The DCF77 signal is then, as visible in Fig. 5, downconverted and centered at

$$f'_c = f_c - 3 \cdot f_s = 77.5 \text{ kHz} - 3 \cdot 24 \text{ kHz} = 5.5 \text{ kHz} \quad (6)$$

caused by the convolution of the initial spectrum with the dirac delta impulse, located at $-3 \cdot f_s$.

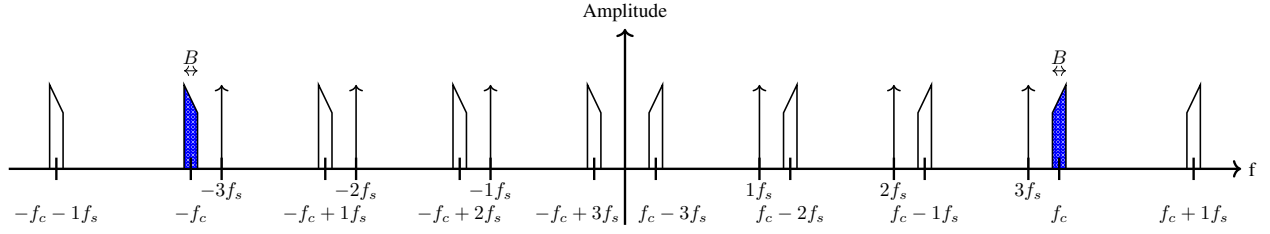


Fig. 5. Spectrum after bandpass sampling the DCF77 signal at $f_s = 24$ kHz

B. The Goertzel Algorithm

The standard approach to analyze a spectrum in the digital domain after sampling is the well-known Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT), implemented by using the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). This yields an analysis of the complete spectrum, producing $\frac{N}{2} + 1$ relevant results for equally distributed frequencies ("frequency bins") within range from 0 Hz to $\frac{f_s}{2}$ where N is the number of samples and f_s the sampling frequency [6]. The signal strength, and therefore the binary time signal of the amplitude-modulated part, can then be examined by observing the value of the corresponding frequency bin over time. Because of only one frequency bin being relevant, it is obvious that a full FFT produces a lot of overhead and redundant calculation operations in this use-case. This overhead can be avoided by using the Goertzel algorithm instead of the FFT, which is able to calculate the value of one specific frequency bin with a smaller amount of needed calculations. It was invented in 1958 by Gerald Goertzel and since then is most commonly used in the detection tones employed in Dual-tone Multi-frequency (DTMF) signaling [9]. The working principle of the algorithm can be perceived as a second-order Infinite Impulse Response (IIR) filter where the results $y[n-1]$ and $y[n-2]$ of the output $y[n]$ are stored in states Q_1 and Q_2 , so they are still available after the execution of the filter [10].

$$y[n] = x[n] + 2 \cdot \cos(\omega_g) \cdot y[n-1] - y[n-2] \quad (7)$$

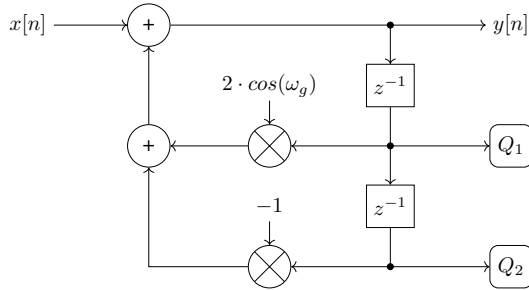


Fig. 6. IIR representation of the Goertzel algorithm without the final calculation of the squared magnitude

The system takes the input sequence $x[n]$ with length N and is executed exactly N times. After the execution, the squared

magnitude of f_a , the frequency to be analyzed, inside $x[n]$ can be calculated using the two states Q_1 and Q_2 :

$$|X(f_a)|^2 = Q_1^2 + Q_2^2 - Q_1 \cdot Q_2 \cdot 2 \cdot \cos(\omega_g) \quad (8)$$

The constant $2 \cdot \cos(\omega_g)$, often called the "Goertzel coefficient", is calculated before the execution and used to adapt the algorithm to the frequency to be analyzed. The Value of ω_g itself is calculated based on a integer number k and N . The integer number k is a rounded fraction based on N , the frequency to be analyzed f_a , and the the sampling frequency f_s .

$$k = \left\lfloor \frac{N \cdot f_a}{f_s} \right\rfloor \quad (9)$$

$$w_g = \frac{2\pi \cdot k}{N} \quad (10)$$

Just as with the conventional FFT, the amount of needed calculations for executing the Goertzel algorithm is based on the number of samples. In total, $N + 1$ multiplications and $2 \cdot N + 2$ additions are needed, which can be seen from the formulas for the IIR-part and the final calculation of the squared magnitude. For example, a length of $N = 512$ requires in 513 multiplications and 1026 additions to calculate the squared magnitude of the desired frequency. In comparison, the typical radix-2 FFT, needs $\frac{N}{2} \cdot \log_2(N)$ complex multiplications and $N \cdot \log_2(N)$ complex additions. With $N = 512$ this would result in 2034 complex multiplications and 4608 complex additions.

With this simple example, it is already visible that the Goertzel algorithm can reduce the amount of needed resources compared to a full FFT, when only one or a small amount of frequency bins should be analyzed. It is therefore used to observe the DCF77 signal's amplitude over time by being executed periodically. As the gap of the encoded symbols is either 100 ms or 200 ms long, the duration of the analysis set to 10 ms to provide a good tradeoff between resolution in time and a longest possible analysis time to leverage the DFT gain. The result is then passed to a detector to obtain the binary time signal from the analyzed amplitude.

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Keep your text and graphic files separate until after the text has been formatted and styled. Do not number text heads— \LaTeX will do that for you.

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Define abbreviations and acronyms the first time they are used in the text, even after they have been defined in the abstract. Abbreviations such as IEEE, SI, MKS, CGS, ac, dc, and rms do not have to be defined. Do not use abbreviations in the title or heads unless they are unavoidable.

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Do not use `\nonumber` inside the `{array}` environment. It will not stop equation numbers inside `{array}` (there won’t be any anyway) and it might stop a wanted equation number in the surrounding equation.

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- Be aware of the different meanings of the homophones “affect” and “effect”, “complement” and “compliment”, “discreet” and “discrete”, “principal” and “principle”.
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Figure Labels: Use 8 point Times New Roman for Figure labels. Use words rather than symbols or abbreviations when writing Figure axis labels to avoid confusing the reader. As an

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example, write the quantity “Magnetization”, or “Magnetization, M”, not just “M”. If including units in the label, present them within parentheses. Do not label axes only with units. In the example, write “Magnetization (A/m)” or “Magnetization {A[m(1)]}”, not just “A/m”. Do not label axes with a ratio of quantities and units. For example, write “Temperature (K)”, not “Temperature/K”.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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REFERENCES

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For papers published in translation journals, please give the English citation first, followed by the original foreign-language citation [6].

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